Vietnamese language

Vietnamese (*Tiếng Việt*) is an Austroasiatic language that originated in Vietnam, where it is the national and official language. Spoken natively by an estimated 95 million people (as of 2018), it is the native language of the Vietnamese (Kinh) people, as well as a first or second language for the many ethnic minorities of Vietnam. As a result of Vietnamese emigration and worldwide cultural influence, Vietnamese speakers are found throughout the world, notably in Southeast Asia, East Asia, North America, Australia and throughout Europe (but mostly in France). Vietnamese has also been officially recognized as a minority language in the Czech Republic.

Vietnamese is a Austroasiatic language, with by far the most speakers, several times as many as the rest of the family combined.[7] Its vocabulary has borrowings from Chinese and as well as some words from French. Vietnamese used to use both Chinese characters and a script called Chữ Nôm which was based on Chinese but included newly invented characters for native Vietnamese words, which were given vernacular pronunciation. The modern Vietnamese alphabet (chữ quốc ngữ) uses the Latin alphabet with accents (or diacritics) for tones and pronunciation.

Contents

Vietnamese	
Tiếng Việt	
Pronunciation	[tĭəŋ vìəˀt] (Northern) [tĭəŋ jìək] (Southern)
Native to	Vietnam and Fangchenggang
Native speakers	~90 million (2018)[1]
Language family	Austroasiatic - Vietic - Viet–Muong **Vietnamese**
Writing system	Latin (Vietnamese alphabet) Vietnamese Braille Chữ Nôm (formerly used until the 1920s)
Official status	
Official language in	🇻🇳 Vietnam (*de facto*)
	ASEAN[2]
Recognised minority language in	🇨🇿 Czech Republic[3]
Language codes	
ISO 639-1	vi (https://www. loc.gov/standard s/iso639-2/php/l angcodes_name.ph p?iso_639_1=vi)
ISO 639-2	vie (https://ww w.loc.gov/standa rds/iso639-2/ph p/langcodes_nam e.php?code_ID=47 9)
ISO 639-3	vie

Glottolog	viet1252 (http p://glottolog.or g/resource/langu oid/id/viet1252)[4
Linguasphere	46-EBA
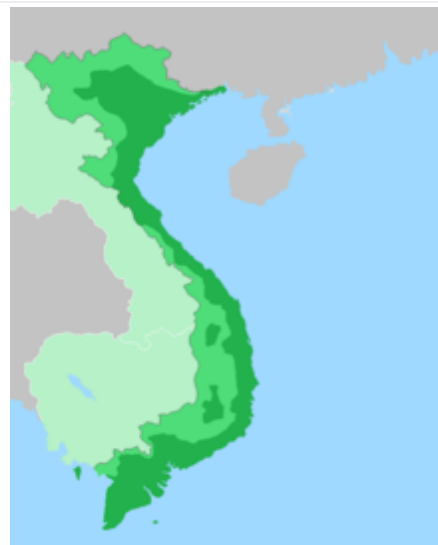
Natively Vietnamese-speaking (non-minority) areas of Vietnam[5]

Geographic distribution

As a national language, Vietnamese is the official language used by everyone in Vietnam. It is also spoken by the Gin in three islands (now joined to the mainland) off Dongxing in southern Guangxi Province, China.[8] A significant number of Vietnamese speakers also reside in neighboring Cambodia and Laos.

In the United States, Vietnamese is the fifth most spoken language, with over 1.5 million speakers, who are concentrated in a handful of states. It is the third most spoken language in Texas and Washington; fourth in Georgia, Louisiana, and Virginia; and fifth in Arkansas and California.[9] Vietnamese is the seventh most spoken language in Australia.[10] In France, it is the most spoken Asian language and the eighth most spoken immigrant language at home.[11]

Official status

Vietnamese is the sole official and national language of Vietnam. It is the first language of the majority of the Vietnamese population, as well as a first or second language for the country's ethnic minority groups. [12]

As a foreign language

Vietnamese is increasingly being taught in schools and institutions outside of Vietnam. In countries with strongly established Vietnamese-speaking communities such as Australia, Canada, France, and the United States, Vietnamese language education largely serves as a cultural role to link descendants of Vietnamese immigrants to their ancestral culture. Meanwhile, in countries near Vietnam such as Cambodia, Laos, South Korea, and Thailand, the increased role of Vietnamese in foreign language education is largely due to the growth and influence of Vietnam's economy.[13][14]

Since the 1980s, Vietnamese language schools (*trường Việt ngữ*) have been established for youth in many Vietnamese-speaking communities around the world, notably in the United States.[15][16]

Historic and stronger trade and diplomatic relations with Vietnam and a growing interest among the French Vietnamese population (one of France's most established non-European ethnic groups) of their ancestral culture have also led to an increasing number of institutions in France, including universities, to offer formal courses in the language.[17]

Since the late 1980s, the Vietnamese German community has enlisted the support of city governments to bring Vietnamese into high school curricula for the purpose of teaching and reminding Vietnamese German students of their mother-tongue. Furthermore, there has also been a number of Germans studying Vietnamese due to increased economic investment in Vietnam.[18][18][19]

Vietnamese is taught in schools in the form of dual immersion to a varying degree in Cambodia,[20] Laos,[21] and the United States.[22][23] Classes teach students subjects in Vietnamese and another language. Furthermore, in Thailand, Vietnamese is one of the most popular foreign languages in schools and colleges.[24].
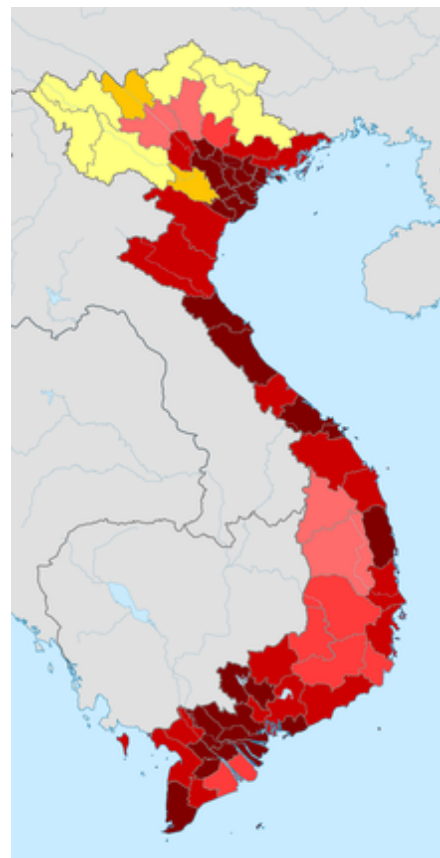
In the Czech Republic, the Government Council for Nationalities is an advisory, initiative-taking and co-ordinating body of the Czech Government for matters of policy towards national minorities and their members. The Council as a whole has 31 members, who have been appointed by a Government resolution. They represent many organizations and institutions, including fourteen national minorities, among them the Vietnamese community.[25]

Percentage of the ethnic Vietnamese (Kinh), by province[6]

- [ ] <20%
- [ ] 20%–40%
- [ ] 40%–60%
- [ ] 60%–80%
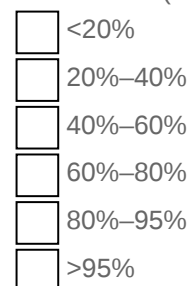- [ ] 80%–95%
- [ ] >95%

Linguistic classification

Early linguistic work some 150 years ago [26] already classified Vietnamese as belonging to the Mon–Khmer branch of the Austroasiatic language family (a family that also includes Khmer, spoken in Cambodia, as well as various smaller and/or regional languages, such as the Munda and Khasi languages spoken in eastern India, and others in Laos, southern China and parts of Thailand). Later, Muong was found to be more closely related to Vietnamese than other Mon–Khmer languages, and a Viet–Muong subgrouping was established, also including Thavung, Chut, Cuoi, etc.[27] The term "Vietic" was proposed by Hayes (1992),[28] who proposed to redefine Viet–Muong as referring to a subbranch of Vietic containing only Vietnamese and Muong. The term "Vietic" is used, among others, by Gérard Diffloth, with a slightly different proposal on subclassification, within which the term "Viet–Muong" refers to a lower subgrouping (within an eastern Vietic branch) consisting of Vietnamese dialects, Muong dialects, and Nguồn (of Quảng Bình Province).[29]

Global distribution of speakers

Lexicon

As a result of the historical period of Vietnam under Chinese rule, and consequent influence from China as a neighbour as an independent state, Vietnamese lexicon received a two-fold layer of integration of Chinese words from Middle Chinese (during the time Vietnam was annexed by China) and from Literary Chinese

(when Vietnam gained independence after 938 AD) into Sino-Vietnamese vocabulary.

Other borrowings, such as those from the Cham language, were due to inter-trading between the two groups and from Vietnam's annexation of the Champa Kingdom, which absorbed the Champa's Indianized culture, creating Central Vietnam. The same happened to the South-East section of the Khmer Kingdom, creating South Vietnam.

Additionally, from the French presence in Vietnam (1777) to the 1954 Geneva Conference (1954), Vietnamese has been influenced by 177 years of the French language. For example, the word 'cà phê' is derived from the French word 'café'.

Nowadays, many new words are being added to the language's lexicon due to influence from the Western World; for example 'TV' is written as 'tivi'. Sometimes these words are calques translated into Vietnamese (for example, 'software' is calqued into 'phần mềm', which means "soft part"). Some calques are multi-syllabic, e.g. Campuchia (Cambodia).

Phonology

Vowels

Like other Southeast Asian languages, Vietnamese has a comparatively large number of vowels.

Below is a vowel diagram of Hanoi Vietnamese (including centering diphthongs):

	Front	**Central**	**Back**
Centering	*ia/iê* [iə]	*ưa/ươ* [ɨə]	*ua/uô* [uə]
Close	*i/y* [i]	*ư* [ɨ]	*u* [u]
Close-mid/ Mid	*ê* [e]	*ơ* [əː] *â* [ə]	*ô* [o]
Open-mid/ Open	*e* [ɛ]	*a* [aː] *ă* [a]	*o* [ɔ]

Front and central vowels (*i, ê, e, ư, â, ơ, ă, a*) are unrounded, whereas the back vowels (*u, ô, o*) are rounded. The vowels *â* [ə] and *ă* [a] are pronounced very short, much shorter than the other vowels. Thus, *ơ* and *â* are basically pronounced the same except that *ơ* [əː] is of normal length while *â* [ə] is short – the same applies to the vowels long *a* [aː] and short *ă* [a].[30]

The centering diphthongs are formed with only the three high vowels (*i, ư, u*). They are generally spelled as *ia, ưa, ua* when they end a word and are spelled *iê, ươ, uô*, respectively, when they are followed by a consonant.

In addition to single vowels (or monophthongs) and centering diphthongs, Vietnamese has closing diphthongs[31] and triphthongs. The closing diphthongs and triphthongs consist of a main vowel component followed by a shorter semivowel offglide /j/ or /w/.[32] There are restrictions on the high offglides: /j/ cannot occur after a front vowel (*i, ê, e*) nucleus and /w/ cannot occur after a back vowel (*u, ô, o*) nucleus.[33]

	/w/ offglide		/j/ offglide	
	Front	**Central**		**Back**
Centering	*iêu* [iə̯w]	*ươu* [ɨə̯w]	*ươi* [ɨə̯j]	*uôi* [uə̯j]
Close	*iu* [iw]	*ưu* [ɨw]	*ưi* [ɨj]	*ui* [uj]
Close-mid/ Mid	*êu* [ew]	– *âu* [əw]	*ơi* [əːj] *ây* [əj]	*ôi* [oj]
Open-mid/ Open	*eo* [ɛw]	*ao* [aːw] *au* [aw]	*ai* [aːj] *ay* [aj]	*oi* [ɔj]

The correspondence between the orthography and pronunciation is complicated. For example, the offglide /j/ is usually written as *i*; however, it may also be represented with *y*. In addition, in the diphthongs [āj] and [āːj] the letters *y* and *i* also indicate the pronunciation of the main vowel: *ay* = ă + /j/, *ai* = a + /j/. Thus, *tay* "hand" is [tāj] while *tai* "ear" is [tāːj]. Similarly, *u* and *o* indicate different pronunciations of the main vowel: *au* = ă + /w/, *ao* = a + /w/. Thus, *thau* "brass" is [tʰāw] while *thao* "raw silk" is [tʰāːw].

Consonants

The consonants that occur in Vietnamese are listed below in the Vietnamese orthography with the phonetic pronunciation to the right.

		Labial	**Dental/ Alveolar**	**Retroflex**	**Palatal**	**Velar**	**Glottal**
Nasal		m [m]	n [n]		nh [ɲ]	ng/ngh [ŋ]	
Stop	tenuis	p [p]	t [t]	tr [ʈ]	ch [c]	c/k/q [k]	
	aspirated		th [tʰ]				
	glottalized	b [ɓ]	đ [ɗ]				
Fricative	voiceless	ph [f]	x [s]	s [ʂ]		kh [x]	h [h]
	voiced	v [v]	d/gi [z~j]			g/gh [ɣ]	
Approximant			l [l]		y/i [j]	u/o [w]	
Rhotic			r [r]				

Some consonant sounds are written with only one letter (like "p"), other consonant sounds are written with a digraph (like "ph"), and others are written with more than one letter or digraph (the velar stop is written variously as "c", "k", or "q").

Not all dialects of Vietnamese have the same consonant in a given word (although all dialects use the same spelling in the written language). See the language variation section for further elaboration.

The analysis of syllable-final orthographic *ch* and *nh* in Hanoi Vietnamese has had different analyses. One analysis has final *ch*, *nh* as being phonemes /c/, /ɲ/ contrasting with syllable-final *t*, *c* /t/, /k/ and *n*, *ng* /n/, /ŋ/ and identifies final *ch* with the syllable-initial *ch* /c/. The other analysis has final *ch* and *nh* as predictable allophonic variants of the velar phonemes /k/ and /ŋ/ that occur after the upper front vowels *i* /i/ and *ê* /e/; although they also occur after *a*, but in such cases are believed to have resulted from an earlier *e* /ɛ/ which diphthongized to *ai* (cf. *ach* from *aic*, *anh* from *aing*). (See Vietnamese phonology: Analysis of final *ch*, *nh* for further details.)

Tones

Each Vietnamese syllable is pronounced with an inherent tone,[34] centered on the main vowel or group of vowels. Tones differ in:

- length (duration)
- pitch contour (i.e. pitch melody)
- pitch height
- phonation

Tone is indicated by diacritics written above or below the vowel (most of the tone diacritics appear above the vowel; however, the *nặng* tone dot diacritic goes below the vowel).[35] The six tones in the northern varieties (including Hanoi), with their self-referential Vietnamese names, are:
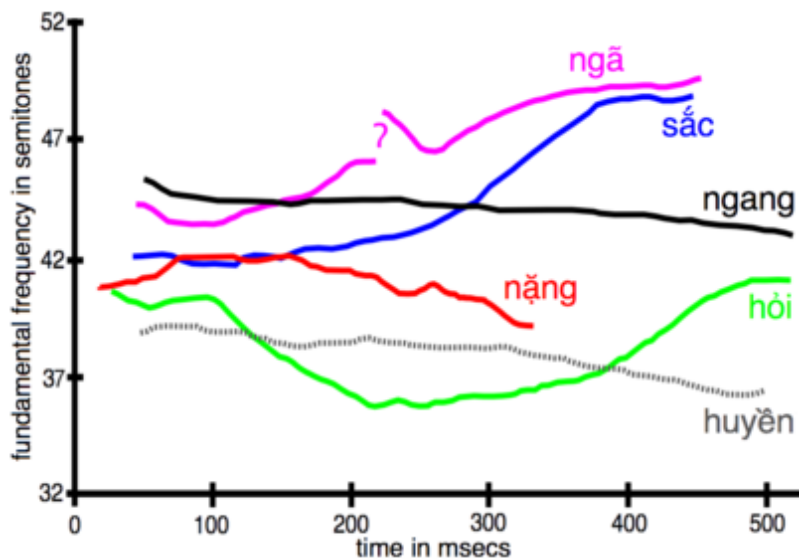
Pitch contours and duration of the six Northern Vietnamese tones as spoken by a male speaker (not from Hanoi). Fundamental frequency is plotted over time. From Nguyễn & Edmondson (1998).

Name	Description	Diacritic	Example	Sample vowel
ngang 'level'	mid level	(no mark)	*ma* 'ghost'	🔊 a
huyền 'deep'	low falling (often breathy)	◌̀ (grave accent)	*mà* 'but'	🔊 à
sắc 'sharp'	high rising	◌́ (acute accent)	*má* 'cheek, mother (southern)'	🔊 á
hỏi 'asking'	mid dipping-rising	◌̉ (hook above)	*mả* 'tomb, grave'	🔊 ả
ngã 'tumbling'	high breaking-rising	◌̃ (tilde)	*mã* 'horse (Sino-Vietnamese), code'	🔊 ã
nặng 'heavy'	low falling constricted (short length)	◌̣ (dot below)	*mạ* 'rice seedling'	🔊 ạ

Other dialects of Vietnamese have fewer tones (typically only five).

In Vietnamese poetry, tones are classed into two groups: (tone pattern)

Tone group	Tones within tone group
bằng "level, flat"	*ngang* and *huyền*
trắc "oblique, sharp"	*sắc*, *hỏi*, *ngã*, and *nặng*

Words with tones belonging to a particular tone group must occur in certain positions within the poetic verse.

Vietnamese Catholics practice a distinctive style of prayer recitation called *đọc kinh*, in which each tone is assigned a specific note or sequence of notes.

Language variation

The Vietnamese language has several <u>mutually intelligible</u> regional varieties (or <u>dialects</u>). The five main dialects are as follows:[36]

Dialect region	Localities	Names under French colonization
Northern Vietnamese	<u>Hanoi</u>, <u>Haiphong</u>, <u>Red River Delta</u>, <u>Northwest</u> and <u>Northeast</u>	<u>Tonkinese</u>
North-central (or Area IV) Vietnamese	<u>Thanh Hoá</u>, <u>Nghệ An</u>, <u>Hà Tĩnh</u>	<u>Annamese</u>
Mid-Central Vietnamese	<u>Quảng Bình</u>, <u>Quảng Trị</u>, <u>Huế</u>, <u>Thừa Thiên</u>	Annamese
South-Central Vietnamese (or Area V)	<u>Đà Nẵng</u>, <u>Quảng Nam</u>, <u>Quảng Ngãi</u>, <u>Bình Định</u>, <u>Phú Yên</u>, <u>Nha Trang</u>	Annamese
Southern Vietnamese	<u>Bà Rịa-Vũng Tàu</u>, <u>Ho Chi Minh City</u>, <u>Lâm Đồng</u>, <u>Mekong Delta</u>	<u>Cochinchinese</u>

Vietnamese has traditionally been divided into three dialect regions: North, Central, and South. However, Michel Ferlus and Nguyễn Tài Cẩn offer evidence for considering a North-Central region separate from Central. The term *Haut-Annam* refers to dialects spoken from northern Nghệ An Province to southern (former) Thừa Thiên Province that preserve archaic features (like consonant clusters and undiphthongized vowels) that have been lost in other modern dialects.

These dialect regions differ mostly in their sound systems (see below), but also in vocabulary (including basic vocabulary, non-basic vocabulary, and grammatical words) and grammar.[37] The North-central and Central regional varieties, which have a significant amount of vocabulary differences, are generally less <u>mutually intelligible</u> to Northern and Southern speakers. There is less internal variation within the Southern region than the other regions due to its relatively late settlement by Vietnamese speakers (around the end of the 15th century). The North-central region is particularly conservative; its pronunciation has diverged less from Vietnamese orthography than the other varieties, which tend to merge certain sounds. Along the coastal areas, regional variation has been neutralized to a certain extent, while more mountainous regions preserve more variation. As for <u>sociolinguistic</u> attitudes, the North-central varieties are often felt to be "peculiar" or "difficult to understand" by speakers of other dialects, despite the fact that their pronunciation fits the written language the most closely; this is typically because of various words in their vocabulary which are unfamiliar to other speakers (see the example vocabulary table below).

The large movements of people between North and South beginning in the mid-20th century and continuing to this day have resulted in a sizeable number of Southern residents speaking in the Northern accent/dialect and, to a greater extent, Northern residents speaking in the Southern accent/dialect. Following the <u>Geneva Accords of 1954</u> that called for the <u>temporary division of the country</u>, about a million northerners (mainly from Hanoi, <u>Haiphong</u> and the surrounding Red River Delta areas) moved south (mainly to Saigon and heavily to <u>Biên Hòa</u> and <u>Vũng Tàu</u>, and the surrounding areas) as part of <u>Operation Passage to Freedom</u>. About 3% (~30,000) of that number of people made the move in the reverse direction (*Tập kết ra Bắc*, literally "go to the North".)

Following the <u>reunification of Vietnam</u> in 1975, Northern and North-Central speakers from the densely populated Red River Delta and the traditionally poorer provinces of Nghệ An, Hà Tĩnh and Quảng Bình have continued to move South to look for better economic opportunities, beginning with the new government's "New Economic Zones program" which lasted from 1975–85.[38] The first half of the program (1975–80), resulted in 1.3 million people sent to the New Economic Zones (NEZs), majority of which were relocated in the southern half of the country in previously uninhabited areas, of which 550,000 were

Northerners.[38] The second half (1981–85) saw almost 1 million Northerners relocated to the NEZs.[38] As well, government and military personnel, many from Northern and north-central Vietnam, are posted to various locations throughout the country, often away from their home regions. More recently, the growth of the free market system has resulted in business people and tourists traveling to distant parts of Vietnam. These movements have resulted in some small blending of the dialects, but more significantly, have made the Northern dialect more easily understood in the South and vice versa. Most Southerners, when singing modern/old popular Vietnamese songs or addressing the public, do so in the Northern accent if possible. This is true in Vietnam as well as in the overseas Vietnamese communities.

Vocabulary

Regional variation in vocabulary[39]

Northern	Central	Southern	English gloss
này	*ni, nì*	*nè*	"this"
thế này	*như ri*	*như vầy*	"thus, this way"
đấy	*nớ, tê*	*đó*	"that"
thế, thế ấy	*rứa, rứa tê*	*vậy, vậy đó*	"thus, so, that way"
kia, kìa	*tê, tề*	*đó*	"that yonder"
đâu	*mô*	*đâu*	"where"
nào	*mồ*	*nào*	"which"
tại sao	*răng*	*tại sao*	"why"
thế nào, như nào	*răng, làm răng*	*làm sao*	"how"
tôi	*tui*	*tui*	"I, me (polite)"
tao	*tau*	*tao*	"I, me (arrogant, familiar)"
chúng tao	*choa, bọn choa*	*tụi tao, tụi tui, bọn tui*	"we, us (but not you, colloquial, familiar)"
mày	*mi*	*mày*	"you (arrogant, familiar)"
chúng mày	*bây, bọn bây*	*tụi mầy, tụi bây, bọn mày*	"you guys (arrogant, familiar)"
nó	*hắn*	*nó*	"he/she/it (arrogant, familiar)"
chúng nó	*bọn nớ*	*tụi nó*	"they/them (arrogant, familiar)"
ông ấy	*ông nớ*	*ổng*	"he/him, that gentleman, sir"
bà ấy	*bà nớ*	*bả*	"she/her, that lady, madam"
anh ấy	*anh nớ*	*ảnh*	"he/him, that young man (of equal status)"
ruộng	*nương*	*ruộng,rẫy*	"field"
bát	*đọi*	*chén*	"rice bowl"
bẩn	*nhớp*	*dơ*	"dirty"
muôi	*môi*	*vá*	"ladle"
đầu	*trốc*	*đầu*	"head"
lười	*nhác*	*làm biếng, lười*	"lazy"
ô tô	*ô tô*	*xe hơi (ô tô)*	"car"
thìa	*thìa*	*muỗng*	"spoon"

Consonants

The syllable-initial *ch* and *tr* digraphs are pronounced distinctly in North-Central, Central, and Southern varieties, but are merged in Northern varieties (i.e. they are both pronounced the same way). The North-Central varieties preserve three distinct pronunciations for *d*, *gi*, and *r* whereas the North has a three-way merger and the Central and South have a merger of *d* and *gi* while keeping *r* distinct. At the end of syllables, palatals *ch* and *nh* have merged with alveolars *t* and *n*, which, in turn, have also partially merged with velars *c* and *ng* in Central and Southern varieties.

Regional consonant correspondences

Syllable position	Orthography	Northern	North-central	Central	Southern
syllable-initial	*x*	[s]	[s]	[s]	[s]
	s	[s]	[ʂ]	[ʂ]	[s, ʂ][40]
	ch	[t͡ɕ]	[c]	[c]	[c]
	tr	[t͡ɕ]	[ʈ]	[ʈ]	[c, ʈ][40]
	r	[z]	[r]	[r]	[r]
	d	[z]	[ɟ]	[j]	[j]
	gi	[z]	[z]	[j]	[j]
	v	[v]	[v]	[v]	[v, j][41]
syllable-final	*t*	[t]	[t]	[k]	[k]
	c	[k]	[k]	[k]	[k]
	t after *i, ê*	[t]	[t]	[t]	[t]
	ch	[k̟]	[k̟]	[t]	[t]
	t after *u, ô*	[t]	[t]	[kp]	[kp]
	c after *u, ô, o*	[kp]	[kp]	[kp]	[kp]
	n	[n]	[n]	[n]	[n]
	ng	[ŋ]	[ŋ]	[n]	[n]
	n after *i, ê*	[n]	[n]	[n]	[n]
	nh	[ŋ̟]	[ŋ̟]	[n]	[n]
	n after *u, ô*	[n]	[n]	[ŋm]	[ŋm]
	ng after *u, ô, o*	[ŋm]	[ŋm]	[ŋm]	[ŋm]

In addition to the regional variation described above, there is a merger of *l* and *n* in certain rural varieties in the North:[42]

l, *n* variation

Orthography	"Mainstream" varieties	Rural varieties
n	[n]	[l]
l	[l]	

Variation between *l* and *n* can be found even in mainstream Vietnamese in certain words. For example, the numeral "five" appears as *năm* by itself and in compound numerals like *năm mươi* "fifty" but appears as *lăm* in *mười lăm* "fifteen" (see Vietnamese grammar#Cardinal). In some northern varieties, this numeral appears with an initial *nh* instead of *l*: *hai mươi nhăm* "twenty-five", instead of mainstream *hai mươi lăm*.[43]

There is also a merger of *r* and *g* in certain rural varieties in the South:

r, *g* variation

Orthography	"Mainstream" varieties	Rural varieties
r	[r]	[ɣ]
g	[ɣ]	

The consonant clusters that were originally present in Middle Vietnamese (of the 17th century) have been lost in almost all modern Vietnamese varieties (but retained in other closely related Vietic languages). However, some speech communities have preserved some of these archaic clusters: "sky" is *blời* with a cluster in Hảo Nho (Yên Mô, Ninh Bình Province) but *trời* in Southern Vietnamese and *giời* in Hanoi Vietnamese (initial single consonants /ʈ/, /z/, respectively).

Tones

Generally, the Northern varieties have six tones while those in other regions have five tones. The *hỏi* and *ngã* tones are distinct in North and some North-central varieties (although often with different pitch contours) but have merged in Central, Southern, and some North-Central varieties (also with different pitch contours). Some North-Central varieties (such as *Hà Tĩnh* Vietnamese) have a merger of the *ngã* and *nặng* tones while keeping the *hỏi* tone distinct. Still, other North-Central varieties have a three-way merger of *hỏi*, *ngã*, and *nặng* resulting in a four-tone system. In addition, there are several phonetic differences (mostly in pitch contour and phonation type) in the tones among dialects.

Regional tone correspondences

Tone	Northern	North-central			Central	Southern
		Vinh	*Thanh Chương*	*Hà Tĩnh*		
ngang	˧ 33	˧˥ 35	˧˥ 35	˧˥ 35, ˧˥˧ 353	˧˥ 35	˧ 33
huyền	˨˩̰ 21̰	˧ 33	˧ 33	˧ 33	˧ 33	˨˩ 21
sắc	˧˥ 35	˩ 11	˩ 11, ˩˧̰ 13̰	˩˧̰ 13̰	˩˧̰ 13̰	˧˥ 35
hỏi	˧˩˧̰ 31̰3	˧˩ 31	˧˩ 31	˧˩ʔ 31̰ʔ	˧˩˨ 312	˧˩˦ 214
ngã	˧ʔ˥ 3ʔ5	˩˧̰ 13̰		˨̰ 22̰		
nặng	˨˩ʔ 21ʔ	˨ 22	˨̰ 22̰		˨̰ 22̰	˨˩˨ 212

The table above shows the pitch contour of each tone using Chao tone number notation (where 1 represents the lowest pitch, and 5 the highest); glottalization (creaky, stiff, harsh) is indicated with the ⟨◌̰⟩ symbol; murmured voice with ⟨◌̤⟩; glottal stop with ⟨ʔ⟩; sub-dialectal variants are separated with commas. (See also the tone section below.)

Grammar

Vietnamese, like Chinese and many languages in Southeast Asia, is an analytic language. Vietnamese does not use morphological marking of case, gender, number or tense (and, as a result, has no finite/nonfinite distinction).[44] Also like other languages in the region, Vietnamese syntax conforms to subject–verb–object word order, is head-initial (displaying modified-modifier ordering), and has a noun classifier system. Additionally, it is pro-drop, wh-in-situ, and allows verb serialization.

Some Vietnamese sentences with English word glosses and translations are provided below.

Minh	*là*	*giáo viên*
Minh	BE	teacher.

"Min is a teacher."

Trí	*13*	*tuổi*
Trí	13	age

"Trí is 13 years old,"

Tài	*đang*	*nói.*
Tài	PRES.CONT	talk

"Tài is talking."

Mai	*có vẻ*	*là*
Mai	seem	BE
sinh viên	*hoặc*	*học sinh.*
student (college)	or	student (under-college)

"Mai seems to be a college or high school student."

Giáp	*rất*	*cao.*
Giáp	INT	tall

"Giáp is very tall."

Người	*đó*	*là*
person	that.DET	BE
anh	*của*	*nó.*
older brother	POSS	3.PRO

"That person is his/her brother."

Con	*chó*	*này*
CL	dog	DET
chẳng	*bao giờ*	*sủa*
NEG	ever	bark
cả.		
all		

"This dog never barks at all."

Nó	*chỉ*	*ăn*
3.PRO	just	eat
cơm	*Việt Nam*	*thôi.*
rice.FAM	Vietnam	only

"He/she/it only eats Vietnamese rice (or food, especially spoken by the elderly)."

Tôi	*thích*	*con*
1.PRO	like	CL
ngựa	*đen.*	
horse	black	

"I like the black horse."

Tôi	*thích*	*cái*
1.PRO	like	FOC

con	*ngựa*	*đen*
CL	horse	black
đó.		
DET		

"I like that black horse."

Hãy	*ở lại*	*đây*
HORT	stay	here
ít	*phút*	*cho tới*
few	minute	until
khi	*tôi*	*quay*
when	1.PRO	turn
lại.		
come		

"Please stay here for a few minutes until I come back."

Dates and numbers writing formats

Vietnameses speak date in the format "[day] [month] [year]". Each month's name is just the ordinal of that month appended after the word *tháng,* which means "month". Traditional Vietnamese however assigns other names to some months; these names are mostly used in the lunar calendar and in poetry.

English month name	Vietnamese month name	
	Normal	**Traditional**
January	Tháng một	Tháng giêng
February	Tháng hai	
March	Tháng ba	
April	Tháng tư	
May	Tháng năm	
June	Tháng sáu	
July	Tháng bảy	
August	Tháng tám	
September	Tháng chín	
October	Tháng mười	
November	Tháng mười một	
December	Tháng mười hai	Tháng chạp

When written in the short form, "DD/MM/YYYY" is preferred. Historically, the Vietnamese order was the same as Chinese, Korean and Japanese (YYYY/MM/DD), but it changed because of French influence in the 20th century. Today, the latter format is still comprehensible by most Vietnamese.

Example:

- **English:** 28 March 2018
- **Vietnamese long form:** Ngày 28 tháng 3 năm 2018

- **Vietnamese short form:** 28/3/2018

The Vietnamese prefer writing numbers with a comma as the decimal separator in lieu of dots, and either spaces or dots to group the digits. An example is 1 629,15 (one thousand six hundred twenty-nine point fifteen). Because a comma is used as the decimal separator, a semicolon is used to separate two numbers instead.

Writing systems

Up to the late 19th century, two writing systems based on Chinese characters were used in Vietnam.[45] All formal writing, including government business, scholarship and formal literature, was done in Classical Chinese (*chữ nho* 𡨸儒 "scholar's characters").

Folk literature in Vietnamese was recorded using the *chữ Nôm* script, in which many Chinese characters were borrowed and many more modified and invented to represent native Vietnamese words. Created in the 13th century or earlier, the *Nôm* writing reached its zenith in the 18th century when many Vietnamese writers and poets composed their works in Nôm, most notably Nguyễn Du and Hồ Xuân Hương (dubbed "the Queen of Nôm poetry"). However it was only used for official purposes during the brief Hồ and Tây Sơn dynasties.

A Vietnamese Catholic, Nguyễn Trường Tộ, sent petitions to the Court which suggested a Chinese character-based syllabary which would be used for Vietnamese sounds; however, his petition failed. The French colonial administration sought to eliminate the Chinese writing system, Confucianism, and other Chinese influences from Vietnam by getting rid of Nôm.[46]

A romanization of Vietnamese was codified in the 17th century by the French Jesuit missionary Alexandre de Rhodes (1591–1660), based on works of earlier Portuguese missionaries Gaspar do Amaral and António Barbosa. This Vietnamese alphabet (*chữ quốc ngữ* or "national script") was gradually expanded from its initial domain in Christian writing to become more popular among the general public. However, the Romanized script did not come to predominate until the beginning of the 20th century, when education became widespread and a simpler writing system was found more expedient for teaching and communication with the general population. Under French Indochina colonial rule, French superseded Chinese in administration. Vietnamese written with the alphabet became required for all public documents in 1910 by issue of a decree by the French Résident Supérieur of the protectorate of Tonkin. By the middle of the 20th century virtually all writing was done in *chữ quốc ngữ*, which became the official script on independence. Chữ nho was still in use on early North Vietnamese and late French Indochinese banknotes issued after World War II,[47][48] but fell out of official use shortly thereafter. Only a few scholars and some extremely elderly people are able to read *chữ Nôm* today. In China, members of the Jing minority still write in chữ Nôm.

In the bilingual dictionary *Nhật dụng thường đàm* (1851), Chinese characters (*chữ nho*) are explained in *chữ Nôm*.

Jean-Louis Taberd's dictionary *Dictionarium anamitico-latinum* (1838) represents Vietnamese (then Annamese) words in the Latin alphabet and *chữ Nôm*.

Changes in the script were made by French scholars and administrators and by conferences held after independence during 1954–1974. The script now reflects a so-called *Middle Vietnamese* dialect that has vowels and final consonants most similar to northern dialects and initial consonants most similar to southern dialects (Nguyễn 1996). This Middle Vietnamese is presumably close to the Hanoi variety as spoken sometime after 1600 but before the present. (This is not unlike how English orthography is based on the Chancery Standard of Late Middle English, with many spellings retained even after the Great Vowel Shift.)

A sign at the Hỏa Lò Prison museum in Hanoi lists rules for visitors in both Vietnamese and English.

Computer support

The Unicode character set contains all Vietnamese characters and the Vietnamese currency symbol. On systems that do not support Unicode, many 8-bit Vietnamese code pages are available such as Vietnamese Standard Code for Information Interchange (VSCII) or Windows-1258. Where ASCII must be used, Vietnamese letters are often typed using the VIQR convention, though this is largely unnecessary with the increasing ubiquity of Unicode. There are many software tools that help type true Vietnamese text on US keyboards, such as WinVNKey (http://winvnkey.sf.net) and Unikey (http://unikey.sf.net) on Windows, or MacVNKey (http://macvnkey.sf.net) on Macintosh.

History

It seems likely that in the distant past, Vietnamese shared more characteristics common to other languages in the Austroasiatic family, such as an inflectional morphology and a richer set of consonant clusters, which have subsequently disappeared from the language. However, Vietnamese appears to have been heavily influenced by its location in the Mainland Southeast Asia linguistic area, with the result that it has acquired or converged toward characteristics such as isolating morphology and phonemically distinctive tones, through processes of tonogenesis. These characteristics have become part of many of the genetically unrelated languages of Southeast Asia; for example, Tsat (a member of the Malayo-Polynesian group within Austronesian), and Vietnamese each developed tones as a phonemic feature. The ancestor of the Vietnamese language is usually believed to have been originally based in the area of the Red River Delta in what is now northern Vietnam.[49][50]

Distinctive tonal variations emerged during the subsequent expansion of the Vietnamese language and people into what is now central and southern Vietnam through conquest of the ancient nation of Champa and the Khmer people of the Mekong Delta in the vicinity of present-day Ho Chi Minh City, also known as Saigon.

Vietnamese was primarily influenced by Chinese, which came to predominate politically in the 2nd century BC. After Vietnam achieved independence in the 10th century, the ruling class adopted Classical Chinese as the medium of government, scholarship and literature. With the dominance of Chinese came radical importation of Chinese vocabulary and grammatical influence. A portion of the Vietnamese lexicon in all realms consists of Sino-Vietnamese words (They comprise about a third of the Vietnamese lexicon, and may account for as much as 60% of the vocabulary used in formal texts.[51])

When France invaded Vietnam in the late 19th century, French gradually replaced Chinese as the official language in education and government. Vietnamese adopted many French terms, such as *đầm* (dame, from *madame*), *ga* (train station, from *gare*), *sơ mi* (shirt, from *chemise*), and *búp bê* (doll, from *poupée*). In addition, many Sino-Vietnamese terms were devised for Western ideas imported through the French.

Henri Maspero described six periods of the Vietnamese language:[52][53]

1. **Pre-Vietnamese**, also known as *Proto-Viet–Muong* or *Proto-Vietnamuong*, the ancestor of Vietnamese and the related Muong language.
2. **Proto-Vietnamese**, the oldest reconstructable version of Vietnamese, dated to just before the entry of massive amounts of Sino-Vietnamese vocabulary into the language, c. 7th to 9th century AD? At this state, the language had three tones.
3. **Archaic Vietnamese**, the state of the language upon adoption of the Sino-Vietnamese vocabulary, c. 10th century AD.
4. **Ancient Vietnamese**, the language represented by Chữ Nôm (c. 15th century) and the Chinese–Vietnamese glossary *Huáyí Yìyǔ* (Chinese: 华夷译语 c. 15th century). By this point, a tone split had happened in the language, leading to six tones but a loss of contrastive voicing among consonants.
5. **Middle Vietnamese**, the language of the *Dictionarium Annamiticum Lusitanum et Latinum* of the Jesuit missionary Alexandre de Rhodes (c. 17th century).
6. **Modern Vietnamese**, from the 19th century.

Proto-Viet–Muong

The following diagram shows the phonology of Proto-Viet–Muong (the nearest ancestor of Vietnamese and the closely related Muong language), along with the outcomes in the modern language:[54][55][56][57]

		Labial	Dental/Alveolar		Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	tenuis	*p > b	*t > đ		*c > ch	*k > k/c/q	*ʔ > #
	voiced	*b > b	*d > đ		*ɟ > ch	*g > k/c/q	
	aspirated	*pʰ > ph	*tʰ > th			*kʰ > kh	
	voiced glottalized	*ɓ > m	*ɗ > n		*ʄ > nh 1		
Nasal		*m > m	*n > n		*ɲ > nh	*ŋ > ng/ngh	
Affricate					*tʃ > x 1		
Fricative	voiceless			*s > t			*h > h
	voiced 2	*(β) > v 3	*(ð) > d	*(ɽ) > r 4	*(ʝ) > gi	*(ɣ) > g/gh	
Approximant		*w > v	*l > l	*r > r	*j > d		

^1 According to Ferlus, */tʃ/ and */ʄ/ are not accepted by all researchers. Ferlus 1992[54] also had additional phonemes */dʒ/ and */ɕ/.

^2 The fricatives indicated above in parentheses developed as allophones of stop consonants occurring between vowels (i.e. when a minor syllable occurred). These fricatives were not present in Proto-Viet–Muong, as indicated by their absence in Muong, but were evidently present in the later Proto-Vietnamese stage. Subsequent loss of the minor-syllable prefixes phonemicized the fricatives. Ferlus 1992[54] proposes that originally there were both voiced and voiceless fricatives, corresponding to original voiced or voiceless stops, but Ferlus 2009[55] appears to have abandoned that hypothesis, suggesting that stops were softened and voiced at approximately the same time, according to the following pattern:

- *p, *b > /β/
- *t, *d > /ð/
- *s > /ɽ/

- *c, *ɟ, *tʃ > /ɟ̊/
- *k, *g > /ɣ/

^3 In Middle Vietnamese, the outcome of these sounds was written with a hooked *b* (ᴃ), representing a /β/ that was still distinct from *v* (then pronounced /w/). See below.

^4 It is unclear what this sound was. According to Ferlus 1992,[54] in the Archaic Vietnamese period (c. 10th century AD, when Sino-Vietnamese vocabulary was borrowed) it was *ɽ, distinct at that time from *r.

The following initial clusters occurred, with outcomes indicated:

- *pr, *br, *tr, *dr, *kr, *gr > /kʰr/ > /kʂ/ > *s*
- *pl, *bl > MV *bl* > Northern *gi*, Southern *tr*
- *kl, *gl > MV *tl* > *tr*
- *ml > MV *ml* > *mnh* > *nh*
- *kj > *gi*

A large number of words were borrowed from Middle Chinese, forming part of the Sino-Vietnamese vocabulary. These caused the original introduction of the retroflex sounds /ʂ/ and /ʈ/ (modern *s*, *tr*) into the language.

Origin of the tones

Proto-Viet–Muong had no tones to speak of. The tones later developed in some of the daughter languages from distinctions in the initial and final consonants. Vietnamese tones developed as follows:

Register	Initial consonant	Smooth ending	Glottal ending	Fricative ending
High (first) register	Voiceless	A1 *ngang* "level"	B1 *sắc* "sharp"	C1 *hỏi* "asking"
Low (second) register	Voiced	A2 *huyền* "deep"	B2 *nặng* "heavy"	C2 *ngã* "tumbling"

Glottal-ending syllables ended with a glottal stop /ʔ/, while fricative-ending syllables ended with /s/ or /h/. Both types of syllables could co-occur with a resonant (e.g. /m/ or /n/).

At some point, a tone split occurred, as in many other Southeast Asian languages. Essentially, an allophonic distinction developed in the tones, whereby the tones in syllables with voiced initials were pronounced differently from those with voiceless initials. (Approximately speaking, the voiced allotones were pronounced with additional breathy voice or creaky voice and with lowered pitch. The quality difference predominates in today's northern varieties, e.g. in Hanoi, while in the southern varieties the pitch difference predominates, as in Ho Chi Minh City.) Subsequent to this, the plain-voiced stops became voiceless and the allotones became new phonemic tones. Note that the implosive stops were unaffected, and in fact developed tonally as if they were unvoiced. (This behavior is common to all East Asian languages with implosive stops.)

As noted above, Proto-Viet–Muong had sesquisyllabic words with an initial minor syllable (in addition to, and independent of, initial clusters in the main syllable). When a minor syllable occurred, the main syllable's initial consonant was intervocalic and as a result suffered lenition, becoming a voiced fricative. The minor syllables were eventually lost, but not until the tone split had occurred. As a result, words in modern Vietnamese with voiced fricatives occur in all six tones, and the tonal register reflects the voicing of the minor-syllable prefix and not the voicing of the main-syllable stop in Proto-Viet–Muong that produced the

fricative. For similar reasons, words beginning with /l/ and /ŋ/ occur in both registers. (Thompson 1976[57] reconstructed voiceless resonants to account for outcomes where resonants occur with a first-register tone, but this is no longer considered necessary, at least by Ferlus.)

Middle Vietnamese

The writing system used for Vietnamese is based closely on the system developed by Alexandre de Rhodes for his 1651 *Dictionarium Annamiticum Lusitanum et Latinum*. It reflects the pronunciation of the Vietnamese of Hanoi at that time, a stage commonly termed *Middle Vietnamese* (*tiếng Việt trung đại*). The pronunciation of the "rime" of the syllable, i.e. all parts other than the initial consonant (optional /w/ glide, vowel nucleus, tone and final consonant), appears nearly identical between Middle Vietnamese and modern Hanoi pronunciation. On the other hand, the Middle Vietnamese pronunciation of the initial consonant differs greatly from all modern dialects, and in fact is significantly closer to the modern Saigon dialect than the modern Hanoi dialect.

The following diagram shows the orthography and pronunciation of Middle Vietnamese:

		Labial	Dental/ Alveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal		*m* [m]	*n* [n]		*nh* [ɲ]	*ng/ngh* [ŋ]	
Stop	tenuis	*p* [p]¹	*t* [t]	*tr* [ʈ]	*ch* [c]	*c/k* [k]	
	aspirated	*ph* [pʰ]	*th* [tʰ]			*kh* [kʰ]	
	voiced glottalized	*b* [ɓ]	*đ* [ɗ]				
Fricative	voiceless			*s/ſ* [ʂ]	*x* [ɕ]		*h* [h]
	voiced	*ƀ* [β]²	*d* [ð]		*gi* [ʝ]	*g/gh* [ɣ]	
Approximant		*v/u/o* [w]	*l* [l]		*y/i/ĕ* [j]³		
Rhotic			*r* [r]				

^1 [p] occurs only at the end of a syllable.
^2 This symbol, "Latin small letter B with flourish", looks like: ƀ. It has a rounded hook that starts halfway up the left side (where the top of the curved part of the b meets the vertical, straight part) and curves about 180 degrees counterclockwise, ending below the bottom-left corner.
^3 [j] does not occur at the beginning of a syllable, but can occur at the end of a syllable, where it is notated *i* or *y* (with the difference between the two often indicating differences in the quality or length of the preceding vowel), and after /ð/ and /β/, where it is notated *ĕ*. This *ĕ*, and the /j/ it notated, have disappeared from the modern language.

Note that *b* [ɓ] and *p* [p] never contrast in any position, suggesting that they are allophones.

The language also has three clusters at the beginning of syllables, which have since disappeared:

- *tl* /tl/ > modern *tr*
- *bl* /ɓl/ > modern *gi* (Northern), *tr* (Southern)
- *ml* /ml/ > *mnh* /mɲ/ > modern *nh*

Most of the unusual correspondences between spelling and modern pronunciation are explained by Middle Vietnamese. Note in particular:

- de Rhodes' system has two different b letters, a regular b and a "hooked" b in which the upper section of the curved part of the b extends leftward past the vertical bar and curls down again in a semicircle. This apparently represented a voiced bilabial fricative /β/. Within a century or so, both /β/ and /w/ had merged as /v/, spelled as *v*.
- de Rhodes' system has a second medial glide /j/ that is written *ĕ* and appears in some words with initial *d* and hooked *b*. These later disappear.
- *đ* /d/ was (and still is) alveolar, whereas *d* /ð/ was dental. The choice of symbols was based on the dental rather than alveolar nature of /d/ and its allophone [ð] in Spanish and other Romance languages. The inconsistency with the symbols assigned to /ɓ/ vs. /β/ was based on the lack of any such place distinction between the two, with the result that the stop consonant /ɓ/ appeared more "normal" than the fricative /β/. In both cases, the implosive nature of the stops does not appear to have had any role in the choice of symbol.
- *x* was the alveolo-palatal fricative /ɕ/ rather than the dental /s/ of the modern language. In 17th-century Portuguese, the common language of the Jesuits, *s* was the apico-alveolar sibilant /ş/ (as still in much of Spain and some parts of Portugal), while *x* was a palatoalveolar /ʃ/. The similarity of apicoalveolar /ş/ to the Vietnamese retroflex /ʂ/ led to the assignment of *s* and *x* as above.

The first page of the ɓ section in Alexandre de Rhodes's *Dictionarium Annamiticum Lusitanum et Latinum* (*Vietnamese–Portuguese–Latin dictionary*)

De Rhodes's orthography also made use of an apex diacritic to indicate a final labial-velar nasal /ŋ͡m/, an allophone of /ŋ/ that is peculiar to the Hanoi dialect to the present day. This diacritic is often mistaken for a tilde in modern reproductions of early Vietnamese writing.

de Rhodes's entry for *dĕóŭ* shows distinct breves, acutes and apices.

Word play

A language game known as *nói lái* is used by Vietnamese speakers.[58] *Nói lái* involves switching the tones in a pair of words and also the order of the two words or the first consonant and rime of each word; the resulting *nói lái* pair preserves the original sequence of tones. Some examples:

Original phrase		Phrase after *nói lái* transformation	Structural change
đái dầm "(child) pee "	→	*đầm dài* (literal translation "vinegar stage")	word order and tone switch
chửa hoang "pregnancy out of wedlock"	→	*hoảng chưa* "scared yet?"	word order and tone switch
bầy tôi "all the king's subjects"	→	*bồi tây* "French waiter"	initial consonant, rime, and tone switch
bí mật "secrets"	→	*bật mí* "revealing secrets"	initial consonant and rime switch

The resulting transformed phrase often has a different meaning but sometimes may just be a nonsensical word pair. *Nói lái* can be used to obscure the original meaning and thus soften the discussion of a socially sensitive issue, as with *dấm đài* and *hoảng chưa* (above) or, when implied (and not overtly spoken), to deliver a hidden subtextual message, as with *bồi tây*.[59] Naturally, *nói lái* can be used for a humorous effect.[60]

Another word game somewhat reminiscent of pig latin is played by children. Here a nonsense syllable (chosen by the child) is prefixed onto a target word's syllables, then their initial consonants and rimes are switched with the tone of the original word remaining on the new switched rime.

Nonsense syllable	Target word		Intermediate form with prefixed syllable		Resulting "secret" word
la	*phở* "beef or chicken noodle soup"	→	*la phở*	→	*lơ phả*
la	*ăn* "to eat"	→	*la ăn*	→	*lăn a*
la	*hoàn cảnh* "situation"	→	*la hoàn la cảnh*	→	*loan hà lanh cả*
chim	*hoàn cảnh* "situation"	→	*chim hoàn chim cảnh*	→	*choan hìm chanh kỉm*

This language game is often used as a "secret" or "coded" language useful for obscuring messages from adult comprehension.

Examples

The Tale of Kieu is an epic narrative poem by the celebrated poet Nguyễn Du, (阮攸), which is often considered the most significant work of Vietnamese literature. It was originally written in Chữ Nôm (titled *Đoạn Trường Tân Thanh* 斷腸新聲) and is widely taught in Vietnam today.

See also

- Vietnamese pronouns
- Vietnamese studies
- Vietnamese Wikipedia

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25. See Government Council for National Minorities (http://www.vlada.cz/en/pracovni-a-poradni-org any-vlady/rnm/historie-a-soucasnost-rady-en-16666/), Belorussian and Vietnamese since 4 July 2013, see Česko má nové oficiální národnostní menšiny. Vietnamce a Bělorusy (http://zpravy.id nes.cz/vietnamci-oficialni-narodnostni-mensinou-fiq-/domaci.aspx?c=A130703_133019_domaci _jj)

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30. There are different descriptions of Hanoi vowels. Another common description is that of Thompson (1965):

	Front	Central	Back	
			unrounded	rounded
Centering	*ia~iê* [iə̯]		*ưa~ươ* [ɯə̯]	*ua~uô* [uə̯]
Close	*i* [i]		*ư* [ɯ]	*u* [u]
Close-mid	*ê* [e]		*ơ* [ɤ]	*ô* [o]
Open-mid	*e* [ɛ]	*ă* [ɐ]	*â* [ʌ]	*o* [ɔ]
Open		*a* [a]		

This description distinguishes four degrees of vowel height and a rounding contrast (rounded vs. unrounded) between back vowels. The relative shortness of *ă* and *â* would then be a secondary feature. Thompson describes the vowel *ă* [ɐ] as being slightly higher (<u>upper low</u>) than *a* [a].

31. In Vietnamese, diphthongs are *âm đôi*.
32. The closing diphthongs and triphthongs as described by Thompson can be compared with the description above:

	/w/ offglide		**/j/ offglide**	
Centering	*iêu* [iə̯w]	*ươu* [ɯə̯w]	*ươi* [ɯə̯j]	*uôi* [uə̯j]
Close	*iu* [iw]	*ưu* [ɯw]	*ưi* [ɯj]	*ui* [uj]
Close-mid	*êu* [ew]	*âu* [ʌw]	*ơi* [ɤj]	*ôi* [oj]
Open-mid	*eo* [ɛw]		*ây* [ʌj]	*oi* [ɔj]
Open		*ao* [aw] *au* [ɐw]	*ai* [aj] *ay* [ɐj]	

33. The lack of diphthong consisting of a *ơ* + back offglide (i.e., [ə : w]) is an apparent gap.
34. Called *thanh điệu* or *thanh* in Vietnamese
35. Note that the name of each tone has the corresponding tonal diacritic on the vowel.
36. Sources on Vietnamese variation include: Alves (forthcoming), Alves & Nguyễn (2007), Emeneau (1947), Hoàng (1989), Honda (2006), Nguyễn, Đ.-H. (1995), Pham (2005), Thompson (1991[1965]), Vũ (1982), Vương (1981).
37. Some differences in <u>grammatical words</u> are noted in <u>Vietnamese grammar: Demonstratives</u>, <u>Vietnamese grammar: Pronouns</u>.
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39. Table data from Hoàng (1989).
40. In southern dialects, *ch* and *tr* are increasingly being merged as [c]. Similarly, *x* and *s* are increasingly being merged as [s].
41. In southern dialects, *v* is increasingly being pronounced [v] among educated speakers. Less educated speakers have [j] more consistently throughout their speech.
42. <u>Kirby (2011)</u>, p. 382.

43. Gregerson (1981) notes that this variation was present in de Rhodes's time in some initial consonant clusters: *mlẽ ~ mnhẽ* "reason" (cf. modern Vietnamese *lẽ* "reason").

44. Comparison note: As such its grammar relies on word order and sentence structure rather than morphology (in which word changes through inflection). Whereas European languages tend to use morphology to express tense, Vietnamese uses grammatical particles or syntactic constructions.

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59. Nguyễn Đ.-H. (1997: 29) gives the following context: "... a collaborator under the French administration was presented with a congratulatory panel featuring the two Chinese characters *quần thần*. This Sino-Vietnamese expression could be defined as *bầy tôi* meaning 'all the king's subjects'. But those two syllables, when undergoing commutation of rhyme and tone, would generate *bồi tây* meaning 'servant in a French household'."

60. See www.users.bigpond.com/doanviettrung/noilai.html (http://www.users.bigpond.com/doanviettrung/noilai.html) Archived (https://web.archive.org/web/20080222075952/http://www.users.bigpond.com/doanviettrung/noilai.html) 2008-02-22 at the Wayback Machine, Language Log's itre.cis.upenn.edu/~myl/languagelog/archives/001788.html (http://itre.cis.upenn.edu/~myl/languagelog/archives/001788.html), and tphcm.blogspot.com/2005/01/ni-li.html (http://tphcm.blogspot.com/2005/01/ni-li.html) for more examples.

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External links

Online lessons

- Online Vietnamese lessons (http://www.seasite.niu.edu/vietnamese/VNLanguage/SupportNS/tableofcontent.htm) from Northern Illinois University
- Learn Vietnamese with Annie (https://www.youtube.com/user/AnnieVietnamese), video lessons by a native speaker

Vocabulary

- Vietnamese Vocabulary List (http://wold.clld.org/vocabulary/24) (from the World Loanword Database)
- Swadesh list of Vietnamese basic vocabulary words (https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/Appendix:Vietnamese_Swadesh_list) (from Wiktionary's Swadesh-list appendix (https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/Appendix:Swadesh_lists))
- Diccionario Vietnamita (http://rutasvietnam.viajes/informacion-vietnam/diccionario-vietnamita)
- Nôm look-up (http://www.nomfoundation.org/nomdb/lookup.php) from the Vietnamese Nôm Preservation Foundation
- Lexicon of Vietnamese words borrowed from French by Jubinell (http://jubinell.blogspot.com/2007/01/t-in-cc-t-ting-vit-mn-t-ting-php.html)
- List of Japanese-Vietnamese Kanjis by Jubinell (http://jubinell.blogspot.com/2010/05/japanese-vietnamese-kanji-list.html)

Language tools

- The Vietnamese keyboard (http://just.nicepeople.free.fr/kbd/) its layout is compared with US, UK, Canada, France, and Germany's keyboards.
- The Free Vietnamese Dictionary Project (https://web.archive.org/web/20181013093753/http://www.informatik.uni-leipzig.de/~duc/Dict/index.html)

Research projects and data resources

- http://projekt.ht.lu.se/rwaai RWAAI (Repository and Workspace for Austroasiatic Intangible Heritage)
- http://hdl.handle.net/10050/00-0000-0000-0003-93ED-5@view Vietnamese in RWAAI Digital Archive